DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 058 337 24 UD 011 993

AUTHOR Marwit, Samuel, J.; And Others
TITLE Nonstandard American English of Socially Disadvantaged Negro Children. Final Report.
INSTITUTION Missouri Univ., St. Louis.
SPONS AGENCY Office of Education (DHEW), Washington, D.C. Bureau of Research.
BUREAU NO BR-0-F-049
PUB DATE Oct 71
GRANT OEG-6-70-0041
NOTE 27p.

EDRS PRICE MF-$0.65 HC-$3.29
DESCRIPTORS American English; *Caucasian Students; *Elementary School Students; *Grammar; Language Development; Language Styles; Negro Dialects; *Negro Students; *Nonstandard Dialects; Racial Differences; Social Dialects; Social Differences; Socioeconomic Status; Standard Spoken Usage
IDENTIFIERS Missouri

ABSTRACT

It has recently been noted that Negro children, especially those of lower socioeconomic status, have a language system whose phonological and grammatical rules differ in predictable ways from the rules governing the standard English used by most white Americans. Four features of Negro non- standard American English have been noted with predictable regularity: zero copula, singularization of plural objects, zero possessive, and the use of "be" to represent time extension. The present research attempted to empirically validate the existence of these distinguishing features by having two Negro and two white examiners administer a task requiring 93 Negro and 108 white second graders to derive the present, plural, possessive, and time extension forms of nonsense syllables. In general, the results support the hypotheses. For each dimension, white children supplied more standard English endings and Negro children more nonstandard English endings. All results were relatively independent of subjects' socioeconomic status. These findings suggest that most Negro children approach the traditional school situation with a language system whose grammar is different from, rather than deficient in relation to, that of their white peers and that of the standard tongue adopted by the school. It is recommended that more research data be collected and the results, if consistent, be incorporated into future curricula developments. (Author/JM)

ED 058337

Final Report

Project No. 0-F-049
Grant No. OEG-6-70-0041

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
OFFICE OF EDUCATION
THIS DOCUMENT HAS BEEN REPRODUCED EXACTLY AS RECEIVED FROM THE PERSON OR ORGANIZATION ORIGINATING IT. POINTS OF VIEW OR OPINIONS STATED DO NOT NECESSARILY REPRESENT OFFICIAL OFFICE OF EDUCATION POSITION OR POLICY.

NONSTANDARD AMERICAN ENGLISH OF SOCIALLY DISADVANTAGED NEGRO CHILDREN

Samuel J. Marwit, Karen L. Marwit, and John J. Boswell

University of Missouri - St. Louis

St. Louis, Missouri

October, 1971

The research reported herein was performed pursuant to a grant with the Office of Education, U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. Contractors undertaking such projects under Government sponsorship are encouraged to express freely their professional judgment in the conduct of the project. Points of view or opinions stated do not, therefore, necessarily represent official Office of Education position or policy.

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF
HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE

Office of Education
Bureau of Research

UD 011 993

CONTENTS

SUMMARY. 1

INTRODUCTION. 1

METHOD. 2

Subjects. 2
Apparatus. 3
Testing Procedures. 4
Rating Procedures. 4

RESULTS. 5

Individual Differences Between Examiners. 5
Standard English. 5
Nonstandard English. 7

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS. 8

RECOMMENDATIONS. 9

REFERENCES. 10

BIBLIOGRAPHY. 12

APPENDIXES. 13

SUMMARY

It has recently been noted that Negro children, especially those of lower socioeconomic status, have a language system whose phonological and grammatical rules differ in predictable ways from the rules governing the standard English used by most white Americans. Four features of Negro non-standard American English have been noted with predictable regularity: (1) zero copula (absence of the verb "is" in the presence tense), (2) singularization of plural objects, (3) zero possessive (lack of a morphological possessive), and (4) the use of "be" to represent time extension. The present research attempted to empirically validate the existence of these distinguishing features by having two Negro and two white examiners administer a task requiring 93 Negro and 108 white second graders to derive the present, plural, possessive, and time extension forms of nonsense syllables. In general, the results support the hypotheses. For each dimension, white children supplied more standard English endings and Negro children more nonstandard English endings. These differences were significant for all but the present tense task. The hypothesized characteristics of Negro nonstandard English were upheld on all but the time extension task. All results were relatively independent of subjects' socioeconomic status. These findings suggest that most Negro children approach the traditional school situation with a language system whose grammar is different from, rather than deficient in relation to, that of their white peers and that of the standard tongue adopted by the school. It is recommended that more research data be collected and the results, if consistent, be incorporated into future curricula developments.

INTRODUCTION

It has been noted for a long time (Klineberg, 1935; Pasamanick and Knobloch, 1955) that Negro children, primarily those of lower socioeconomic status, appear deficient in language functioning. Many of these linguistic "deficiencies" are similar to those noted among white children of low socioeconomic status (Bernstein, 1961; Templin, 1957); others appear specifically related to race (Deutsch, 1965). Most of the literature to date has focused either on the relationship of these deficits to specific cognitive impairments (Deutsch, 1965; John, 1963; John and Goldstein, 1964; Klineberg, 1935) or on those social conditions that might be responsible for the manifestation of such problems (Gray & Klaus, 1963; McCarthy, 1961; Milner, 1951; Nisbet, 1961). Regardless, the traditional view of Negro children's language is that it represents a "substandard" language relative to white middle-class norms and expectations (S. Baratz, 1968).

Recently, however, some linguists and educators (Bailey, 1968; J. Baratz, 1969; S. Baratz, 1968; Labov, 1967; Stewart, 1967, 1968; Vetter,

1969) have come to regard "black language" as a uniquely different linguistic system from that of standard American English. Instead of considering it substandard American English, they have come to view it as nonstandard American English. They point out that black language follows a consistent and predictable set of phonological and grammatical rules that are highly elaborated and sophisticated, yet different from those governing the standard English used by most white Americans. If this is the case, Negro children are approaching the traditional school situation with the overwhelming disadvantage of speaking a "quasi-foreign language" (Stewart, 1968) which is neither fully recognized nor openly accepted (Baratz and Shuy, 1969; Wolfram, 1969). The problems this poses in holding one's own in reading, writing, communication, and concept formation have been clearly illustrated by Bailey (1968) and Vetter (1969). These problems, according to Deutsch (1965), are "cumulative" and therefore increase over the child's academic career.

Using standard English as a reference point, the major distinguishing syntactical features of Negro nonstandard English are (1) the zero copula (absence of the verb "is" in the present tense), (2) singularization of plural objects, (3) the zero possessive (lack of a morphological possessive), and (4) the use of "be" to represent time extension. Examples of each of these, respectively, are, "He go", "There are two hat", "The man hat", and "He be going".

Unfortunately, most of the literature pertaining to these nonstandard patterns has been descriptive and observational. Few attempts, if any, have been made to study them empirically. If Negro nonstandard English is, in fact, a well-ordered, highly structured, highly developed language system, we must assume, as does J. Baratz (1969), that by the time the Negro child is five, he has learned the rules of his linguistic environment and will apply these rules with a high degree of consistency. The present study attempted to investigate this by employing a design similar to that used by Berko (1958) in studying white children's acquisition of the rules of standard English. Negro and white second graders were presented with a task requiring them to transform nonsense syllables in ways designed to represent each of the above four distinguishing grammatical features. Nonsense syllables were used to insure that the child was responding in terms of internalized rules and not in terms of familiarity with preexisting vocabulary. It was hypothesized that for each category, white children would supply significantly more standard English forms and Negro children significantly more nonstandard English forms of the variety described above.

METHOD

Subjects

A total of 229 second graders from 10 classrooms of four elementary schools in a St. Louis County public school system were tested by two Negro and two white male examiners. Nineteen of these subjects were

discarded from study because of an examiner's failure to present standard instructions, eight because information relevant to socioeconomic status could not be obtained, and one because of oriental origin. The remaining sample consisted of 93 Negro and 108 white subjects, 49 tested by Negro examiners, 59 by white examiners. Subjects were further subdivided into high, middle, and low socioeconomic status by applying Hollingshead's (1958) occupational scale from his Two Factor Index of Social Position to subjects' parents' occupation. High, middle, and low were arbitrarily represented by categories 1-3, 4, and 5-7, respectively. Unfortunately, parental occupation was the only demographic datum provided by the schools. The absence of supportive educational and/or income information necessarily reduces the validity of the scale (Light and Smith, 1970) and any effects due to socioeconomic status must be interpreted with this in mind.

Apparatus

Each subject was administered a test consisting of 24 ambiguous drawings each accompanied by sentences read by the examiner describing the drawing as either an object or a person engaged in some action. In all cases, the object or action was labelled by a nonsense syllable and presented to the subject in such a way that he was required to derive the present, plural, possessive, or time extension form of the nonsense syllable. The first four items were sample items offered to (1) familiarize the subject with the task and (2) to assure the examiner that his subject understood and was able to perform it. These were followed by 20 test items arranged sequentially such that each of the five items assessing present tense was followed by one testing the formation of plural objects, followed by possessive, followed by time extension. This order was chosen to minimize the generalization of a set established on one item to any of the four related items. Examples of each test item and the order of presentation are given below. The entire set of 24 items can be found in Appendix D. Examples of drawings are found in Appendix F:

(1) Present tense. Stick figure reclining with legs crossed and head on hand. "This is a man who knows how to pid. What is he doing now? Now he_____."
(2) Pluralization. One, then two figures resembling musical notes. "This is a lun. Now there is another one. There are two of them. There are two_____."
(3) Possessive. Cup, lun holding cup. "This is a cup that belongs to the lun. Whose cup is it? It is the _____."
(4) Time extension. Stick figure positioned for throwing. "This is a man who knows how to mork. He does this all the time. All the time, he_____."

The 18 nonsense syllables employed for the total 24 items (12 used only once as in (1) and (4) above, 6 duplicated as in (2) and (3) above) were selected from a total of 25 nonsense syllables on the basis of association values obtained from an independent sample of 60 Negro and

22 white second graders from a school system other than the one under study (Boswell, Marwit, and Marwit, unpublished data). Those 15 syllables which had the lowest association value and the highest frequency of independent responses were employed as test stimuli. The next three highest in "nonsensibility" were employed as sample items. The remaining six were discarded from study.

All sessions were recorded on Ampex 641-1/4-1800 tape using a Wollensak #1500 tape recorder at 3 3/4 I.P.S.

Testing Procedure

Prior to testing, examiners attended four two-hour training sessions, half of each being devoted to the practice testing of children (four per examiner) from schools other than those used in the study, and half devoted to a discussion of problems in test administration and to practice in the verbatim recording of subjects' responses. Examiners were told that they were participating in a study of language development but were never informed of the hypotheses being tested. They were instructed to accept all subject responses as being "inherently correct for that particular child at his particular stage of linguistic development." Posttest interviews confirmed each examiner's ignorance of the purpose of the research.

Testing for data collection was performed in rooms set aside by each school for the express purpose of conducting this study. Each subject was tested individually. Each was seated at a table opposite the examiner and told that he was "about to play a little word game using a tape recorder" and that he was to speak directly into the microphone placed before him. The task was then introduced to the child as follows: "We are going to play a silly word game with a bunch of silly words that somebody made up. I think you will find this a lot of fun. What I am going to do is this. I am going to say some sentences but I will leave off the last part. What you are to do is finish the last part for me. OK? (Answer any questions that might arise). Now let's practice."

The examiner then administered the four sample items which could be repeated for the child if necessary. Examiners were not permitted, however, to repeat anything more than the sentence stem. Most children comprehended the task by item (2), all by (3). Practice was followed by the examiner's presentation of the 20 test items, for which no repetition was permitted. Each subject's responses were recorded verbatim in a test booklet which also provided space for his name, sex, age, race, and "comments."

Rating Procedure

All tapes of all sessions were given to two student speech clinicians who independently recorded all subjects' responses verbatim in test booklets identical to those used by examiners. It was felt that "trained ears" whose sole task was to listen and record would provide

an accurate assessment of each subject's responses as well as a reliability check on the examiners' ability to record these responses. Responses recorded by examiners and speech clinicians were then rated by the three principal investigators blind to subjects' identifying information. The rating scale provided categories for standard English, nonstandard English as hypothesized, and nonstandard English other than hypothesized. This scale and examples utilizing sentence stems from the sample items above are to be found in Appendix A.

A kappa coefficient (k) of agreement for nominal scale data (Fleiss, Cohen, and Everitt, 1969) was used to test interrecorder reliability. All k's were highly significant ($p < .001$). Tests of significance between ks were nonsignificant. While the vast majority of test items showed triple agreement, those that did not showed at least double agreement. Thus, the "best two out of three" was defined as the criterion for obtaining scores for the final data analyses.

RESULTS

Individual Differences Between Examiners

It was decided, a priori, to initially test for differences between examiners. Univariate analyses of variance comparing all examiners for each rating category for each of the four tasks revealed only one significant main effect. That was for the number of standard English forms elicited on the present tense task ($F = 2.86$, $df = 3, 197$, $p < .05$). A Duncan Multiple Range test (Winer, 1962) showed this to be the result of differences between Negro and white examiners and not between examiners of the same race. On this basis, both Negro examiners' scores were combined as were both white examiners' scores. All ensuing analyses of variance, therefore, employed two levels of examiner race in addition to the two levels of subject race and three levels of subject socioeconomic status.

Standard English

A multivariate analysis of variance was used to test the hypothesis that white subjects supply significantly more standard English forms than Negro subjects on all four tasks. The means upon which this analysis are based can be found in Table 1. A summary of the analysis is presented in Appendix B.

While all four mean comparisons are in the hypothesized direction and a strongly significant effect of subject race was obtained, a Subject Race X Task interaction was also obtained indicating significant race effects on certain tasks only. Univariate analyses of variance analyzing each task separately indicate significant effects of subject race on the plural ($F = 7.78$, $df = 1, 189$, $p < .005$), possessive ($F = 12.11$, $df = 1, 189$, $p < .0001$), and time extension ($F = 20.03$, $df = 1, 189$, $p < .0001$) dimensions but not on the present tense task.

Two significant triple interactions were obtained. Observation

Table 1

Mean Number of Standard American English and Nonstandard American English as Hypothesized Forms Supplied by Negro and White Subjects on Present, Plural, Possessive and Time Extension Tasks

Form	Race	N	Task							
			Present		Plural		Possessive		Time Extension	
			M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Standard	White	108	2.65	1.94	3.91	1.81	3.93	1.75	4.00	1.78
	Negro	93	1.80	1.80	2.89	2.01	2.73	1.93	2.45	2.11
Nonstandard	White	108	1.15	1.83	1.06	1.78	1.04	1.71	.90[a]	1.71
	Negro	93	1.75	1.92	2.04	1.99	2.25	1.95	2.43[a]	2.14

[a] No nonstandard English as hypothesized, rated "2", was obtained for time extension. Scores entered represent the mean number of "3" ratings obtained.

of the relevant means indicates that the Examiner Race X Subject Race X Task interaction is the result of Negro examiners eliciting more standard English from Negro subjects on all but the time extension task and from white subjects on all but the plural task. Whether this is primarily an examiner effect with Negro examiners facilitating or white examiners suppressing the occurrence of standard English regardless of subject race, or an interactive effect dependent upon particular examiner-subject combinations cannot be ascertained from the present design, nor can the reason for the reversal of these effects in one of four cases. The Subject Race X Subject Socioeconomic Status X Task interaction was analyzed by applying Scheffe's (1953) test to all pairs of mean differences in the amount of standard English endings supplied by each race on each task at each socioeconomic level (k=24). In all comparisons, white subjects supplied more standard English than Negro subjects. Neither Negro and white subjects of high socioeconomic status nor Negro and white subjects of middle socioeconomic status differed in their relative rates of supplying standard English endings to each of the four tasks. In other words, the functions depicting both races' performances across the four tasks at these socioeconomic levels were essentially parallel. On the other hand, a significant difference was obtained when comparing Negro and white subjects of low socioeconomic status in their relative rates of responding to the present and time extension tasks as vs. the plural and possessive tasks (F = 53.27, $F'_{(.01)}$ = 43.31). Plotting the means for these groups across tasks indicates nonparallel functions and suggests that the major contributing factor in the triple interaction is the differential rate of responding on the time extension task. Whether white subjects are overproducing or Negro subjects underproducing standard English forms on this task relative to their performance on the other three tasks cannot be determined, nor can the reason for this discrepancy occurring among subjects of one socioeconomic level only.

Nonstandard English

Inherent in the white subjects' significantly greater productivity of standard English is the implication that Negro subjects respond significantly more with either one or a number of nonstandard English forms. To determine whether these are of the variety hypothesized, a multivariate analysis of variance, summarized in Appendix C, was run for the total number of hypothesized nonstandard English forms obtained from subjects of both races on the present, plural, and possessive tasks. Time extension was omitted from analysis because no nonstandard English as hypothesized was obtained. In other words, no subject responded to the sentence stem "All the time, he_____" by supplying "be" followed by the gerund form of the nonsense syllable.

As can be seen in Table 1, all means for the three comparisons are in the predicted direction. The analysis of variance displayed a significant effect of subject race (F = 8.80, df = 1, 189, $p < .01$) and a significant Subject Race X Task interaction (F = 3.18, df = 2, 378, $p < .05$) which complements results obtained in the analysis of standard

English forms described above. Univariate analyses of variance analyzing each task separately again showed significant effects of subject race for the plural ($F = 8.10$, $df = 1, 189$, $p < .005$) and possessive ($F = 12.92$, $df = 1, 189$, $p < .0005$) tasks and again failed to reach significance for the present tense variable. Regarding time extension, while no hypothesized nonstandard English forms were obtained, Negro subjects did consistently offer a nonhypothesized nonstandard English form. Significantly more Negro than white subjects responded to the time extension stem by supplying the stimulus syllable, without modification ($F = 20.07$, $df = 1, 189$, $p < .0001$) thereby obtaining a rating of "3" (see Appendix A).

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

In general, the results support the hypothesis that white children supply more standard English endings to nonsense syllables designed to represent the plural and possessive of nouns and the present and time extension forms of verbs, and that Negro subjects, consequently, supply more nonstandard English forms. Significant syntactical differences due to subject race were obtained on all but the present tense task. The hypothesized characteristics of Negro nonstandard English were supported for all but the time extension dimension.

The failure to obtain significant subject race differences on the present tense task was a particularly unexpected finding. While it is possible that, in actuality, no differences exist, it is unlikely since it is this category, more than any other, that is referred to in the literature when documenting racial differences in language functions. A second possibility is that differences do exist but that the grammatical rules involved are particularly difficult to learn and are not incorporated by the time children reach second grade. However, this too is unlikely since it is hard to see what is more difficult about learning these rules than those governing the other three tasks for which significant differences were obtained. More likely, the failure to obtain significance resulted from the investigators' naive assignment of nonsense stimuli to this task. Of the five words used to test present tense, one was "ris," another "zub." To the first, subjects could respond with "ris" which would be rated nonstandard English as hypothesized or "risses," rated standard English (as per examples in Appendix A). The final "s" on the stimulus syllable makes the auditory discrimination of these forms difficult, especially if the response is slurred or spoken rapidly. Similarly, with "zub," subjects could respond with either "Now he's zubbing," a standard English form or "Now he zubbing," a nonstandard English form. Research now in progress (see Appendix I) has substituted more easily discriminable stimuli; i.e., "bik" for "ris" and "heg" for "zub." These alternative syllables do not contain sibilants in either the initial or final positions, and should therefore help determine whether or not the hypothesized differences exist.

Regarding the preponderance of nonstandard English given by Negro subjects, the hypothesized form was given to a significant degree on

the plural and possessive tasks. A noteworthy but nonsignificant trend in this direction was also obtained for the present tense task. The failure to reach significance in this latter case is probably the complementary result of the poor choice of present tense nonsense syllables discussed above. The failure of the time extension task to elicit any nonstandard English as hypothesized was surprising. Either the hypothesized form was incorrect or the sentence stem was improperly structured to elicit it. According to J. Baratz (1969) and others, "be" followed by the "ing" form of the verb in and of itself denotes time extension for the Negro child. It is therefore possible that the authors' use of the stem "all the time" obviated the Negro subjects' need to supply "be-ing." To do so would have simply been redundant and poor grammatical form in any man's language. It is furthermore possible that "be-ing" may be a grammatical form reserved for a specific variety of time extension, and not for the general case as was assumed in this study. Fasold (1969), for example, holds that "be-ing" represents "repeated" as opposed to "continuous" action. His contention has recently been supported by Wolfram (1971). Just what stimulus then, if any, is required to elicit the hypothesized nonstandard form of time extension must remain a question for future investigation. More important for the present hypothesis, however, is recognition of the fact that even though Negro subjects failed to respond with the hypothesized nonstandard form, they did supply an alternate nonstandard form with significant regularity.

The consistent use of nonstandard English forms by Negro subjects is probably the most remarkable finding of this study. It lends empirical support to those who have claimed that "black language" is a separate, highly consistent language with fixed grammatical rules that differ in particular ways from the rules governing the language used by most white Americans. If "black language" were nothing more than a substandard form of standard English, a sloppy array of nonstandard forms should have emerged. Instead, well-defined nonstandard forms differing in set ways from standard English were elicited for the most part by each sentence stem. The problems inherent in a culture supporting languages differing in grammar yet sharing the same vocabulary are beyond the scope of the present report. Yet, it seems imperative to note that unless the distinguishing features of one language are recognized and accepted by speakers of the other, no one stands to gain.

RECOMMENDATIONS

The question of whether black language is a different or a deficient variety of English in relation to that spoken by most white American children and in relation to that adopted as the standard by most American public schools is important. If the Negro child's language is different, as the present findings suggest, then the Negro child has been historically subject to a disadvantaged education; i.e., one which has required him as an essentially "foreign speaking" person to compete with native speaking peers in the latter's own tongue (never vice versa). Until compensations are allowed for the Negro child's linguistic differences, his intellectual performance will, of necessity, <u>appear</u>

deficient.

Programs designed to teach traditional subject matters to Negro children by use of nonstandard English materials and to teach Negro children standard American English as a second language (Baratz and Shuy, 1969; Johnson, 1971; Labov and Cohen, 1967) are currently being devised. While these constitute a step in the right direction, it is essential that they not be developed in haste. Such programs, to be effective, must be based upon factual information. Since educational progress will not, and indeed, should not be halted, it is imperative and therefore recommended that certain basic facts be investigated soon. Most demanding at the present time are (1) the establishment of the reliability, and consequently, the validity of the nonstandard English phenomenon and (2) some understanding of its developmental aspects. It is therefore recommended that in the interest of (1), research of the sort described in this final report be replicated both in St. Louis and in other geographic locations; and that in the interest of (2), longitudinal research be conducted which follows the linguistic development of the Negro child as he progresses through the public school grades. Research addressing both (1) and (2) is currently in progress (Marwit and Marwit, in progress) and is described in Appendixes H and I.

REFERENCES

Bailey, B. L. Some aspects of the impact of linguistics on language teaching in disadvantaged communities. Elementary Education, 1968, 45, 570-579.

Baratz, J. C. Language and cognitive assessment of Negro children: Assumptions and research needs. Asha, 1969, 11, 87-91.

Baratz, J. D. & Shuy, R. W. Teaching black children to read. Washington, D.C.: Center for Applied Linguistics, 1969.

Baratz, S. S. Social science strategies for research on the Afro-American. Paper presented at the American Psychological Association, September, 1968. San Francisco, California.

Berko, J. The child's learning of English morphology. Word, 1958, 14, 150-177.

Bernstein, B. Social structure, language, and learning. Educational Research, 1961, 3, 163-176.

Boswell, J. J., Marwit, K. L., & Marwit, S. J. Associative hierarchies of Negro and white children in response to nonsense stimuli. Unpublished data.

Deutsch, M. The role of social class in language development and cognition. American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 1965, 35, 78-88.

Fasold, R. W. Tense and the form "be" in black English. Language, 1969, 45, 763-776.

Fleiss, J. L., Cohen, J., & Everitt, B. S. Large sample standard errors of kappa and weighted kappa. Psychological Bulletin, 1969, 72, 323-327.

Gray, S. W., and Klaus, R. Early Training Project: Interim report. Murfreesboro, Tennessee: The City Schools and George Peabody College for Teachers, November, 1963. 25 pp. (Mimeo)

Hollingshead, A. B., and Redlich, F. C. Social class and mental illness. New York: Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1958.

John, V. P. The intellectual development of slum children: Some preliminary findings. American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 1963, 33, 813-822.

John, V. P., and Goldstein, L. S. The social context of language acquisition. Merrill-Palmer Quarterly, 1964, 10, 265-276.

Johnson, K. R. Should black children learn standard English? Bulletin of the School of Education, Indiana University, 1971.

Klineberg, O. A. Negro intelligence and selective migration. New York: Columbia University Press, 1935.

Labov, W. Some suggestions for teaching standard English to speakers of nonstandard urban dialects. In New Directions in Elementary English. Champaign, Illinois: National Council of Teachers of English, 1967.

Labov, W. & Cohen, P. Some suggestions for teaching standard English to speakers of non-standard dialects. New York: Columbia University, 1967.

Light, R. J., and Smith, P. V. Social allocation models of intelligence: A methodological inquiry. Harvard Educational Review, 1969, 39, 484-510.

McCarthy, D. A. Affective aspects of language learning. Presidential address, Division of Developmental Psychology, American Psychological Association, September, 1961. Newsletter, APA, Division of Developmental Psychology, Fall, 1961, pp. 1-11.

Milner, E. A study of the relationship between reading readiness in grade one school children and patterns of parent-child interaction. Child Development, 1951, 22, 95-112.

Nisbet, J. P. Family environment and intelligence. In A. H. Halsey, J. Floud, and C. A. Anderson (Eds.), Education, economy, and society. New York: Free Press of Glencoe, 1961. Chapter 23, pp. 273-278.

Pasamanick, B., and Knobloch, H. Early language behavior in Negro children and the testing of intelligence. Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 1955, 50, 401-402.

Scheffe, H. A method for judging all contrasts in the analysis of variance. Biometrika, 1953, 40, 87-104.

Stewart, W. A. Sociolinguistic factors in the history of American Negro dialects. The Florida FL Reporter, 1967, 5 (No. 2, 1-4).

Stewart, W. A. Continuity and change in American Negro dialects. The Florida FL Reporter, Spring, 1968.

Templin, N.C. Certain language skills in children. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1957.

Vetter, H. J. Language behavior and communication. Itasca, Illinois: Peacock Publishing Company, 1969.

Winer, B.J. Statistical principles in experimental design. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1962.

Wolfram, W. A sociolinguistic description of Detroit Negro speech. Washington, D.C.: Center for Applied Linguistics, 1969.

Wolfram, W. Black-white speech differences revisited. Viewpoints, 1971, 47, 28-50.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Baratz, J. C. Should black children learn white dialect? Asha, 1970, 12, 415-417.

Cazden, C. B. Subcultural differences in child language: an interdisciplinary review. Merrill-Palmer Quarterly, 1966, 12, 185-219. Also in J. Hellmuth (Ed.) Disadvantaged Child (Vol. 2), New York: Brunner, Mazel Inc., 1968.

Dillard, J. L. The English teacher and the language of the newly integrated student. Teacher's College Record, 1967, 69, 115-120.

Erickson, F. F'get you honky: a new look at black dialect in the school. Elementary English, 1969, 46, 495-517.

Fasold, R. W. & Shuy, R. W. Teaching standard English in the inner city. Washington, D.C.: Center for Applied Linguistics, 1970.

Houston, S. A reexamination of some assumptions about the language of the disadvantaged child. Child Development, 1970, 41, 947-963.

Labov, W. The study of non-standard English. Champaign, Illinois: Center for Applied Linguistics, 1970.

McDavid, R. I., Jr. & McDavid, V. G. The relationship of the speech of American Negroes to the speech of whites. American Speech, 1951, 29, 3-17.

Saville, M. R. Interference phenomena in language teaching: their nature, extent, and significance in the acquisition of standard English. Elementary English, 1971, 48, 396-405.

Shuy, R. Social dialects and language learning. Champaign, Illinois: National Council of Teachers of English, 1964.

Shuy, R. A selective bibliography on social dialects. The Linguistic Reporter, 1968, 10, 1-5.

Special Study Institute on Speech, Hearing and Language and the Black Urban Child: Final Report. American Speech and Hearing Association, 1971.

Taylor, O. L. Recent developments in sociolinguistics: some implications for ASHA. Asha, 1971, 13, 341-345.

Williams, F. Language and poverty: perspectives on a theme. Chicago, Illinois: Markham Publishing Company, 1970.

APPENDIX A

Rating Scale and Examples of Standard English (SE), Nonstandard English (NSE) as Hypothesized, and Nonstandard English other than Hypothesized

Task and Category	Rating	Example
Present tense		Now he_____.
SE	1	is pidding, pids
NSE as hypothesized	2	pid
NSE other than hypothesized	3	is pid
NSE other than hypothesized	4	pidding
No response	5	
Pluralization		There are two_____.
SE	1	luns
NSE as hypothesized	2	lun
No response	5	
Possessive		It is the_____.
SE	1	lun's
NSE as hypothesized	2	lun
No response	5	
Time Extension		All the time, he_____.
SE	1	is morking, morks
NSE as hypothesized	2	be morking
NSE other than hypothesized	3	mork
NSE other than hypothesized	4	morking
No response	5	

APPENDIX B

Analysis of Variance of Number of Standard American English Forms Supplied by Negro and White Subjects on Four Tasks

Source	df	MS	F
Between			
Examiner race (A)	1	6.22	.55
Subject race (B)	1	140.07	12.45**
Subject Socioeconomic Status (C)	2	34.96	3.11
A X B	1	1.48	.13
A X C	2	3.40	.30
B X C	2	12.08	1.07
A X B X C	2	3.47	.31
Error	189	11.25	
Within			
Task (D)	3	62.84	64.58***
A X D	3	1.76	1.80
B X D	3	5.17	5.31**
C X D	6	1.37	1.41
A X B X D	3	2.73	2.80*
A X C X D	6	.73	.75
B X C X D	6	2.97	3.05*
A X B X C X D	6	.59	.60
Error	378	.97	

*$p < .05$
**$p < .01$
***$p < .001$

APPENDIX C

Analysis of Variance of Number of Nonstandard American English Forms Supplied by Negro and White Subjects on Three Tasks

Source	df	MS	F
Between			
Examiner race (A)	1	7.37	.86
Subject race (B)	1	75.76	8.80**
Subject SES (C)	2	15.34	1.78
A X B	1	2.40	.28
A X C	2	2.69	.31
B X C	2	8.94	1.04
A X B X C	2	4.09	.47
Error	189	8.62	
Within			
Task (D)	2	1.44	
A X D	2	.96	1.03
B X D	2	2.96	3.18*
C X D	4	.50	.53
A X B X D	2	.23	.25
A X C X D	4	.54	.58
B X C X D	4	.99	1.06
A X B X C X D	4	.18	.19
Error	378	.93	

*$p < .05$
**$p < .01$

APPENDIX D

Task: Standard English Presentation

Examples

DO NOT FORGET to have the child repeat (pronounce) each nonsense word after you give it to him as part of the first sentence of each question.

1. This is a man who knows how to PID. What is he doing now?
   Now he_____.

2. This is a LUN. Now there is another one. There are two of them.
   There are two_____.

3. This is a cup that belongs to the LUN. Whose cup is it?
   It is the_____.

4. This is a man who knows how to MORK. He does this all the time.
   All the time, he_____.

Comments:

TASK

1. This is a man who knows how to GUL. What is he doing now?
   Now he_____.

2. This is a HEG. Now there is another one. There are two of them.
   There are two_____.

3. This is a hat that belongs to the HEG. Whose hat is it?
   It is the_____.

4. This is a man who knows how to TULL. He does this all the time.
   All the time, he_____.

5. This is a man who knows how to MOT. What is he doing now?
   Now he_____.

6. This is a GINT. Now there is another one. There are two of them.
   There are two_____.

7. This is a ball that belongs to the GINT. Whose ball is it?
   It is the_____.

8. This is a man who knows how to ZAR. He does this all the time.
   All the time, he_____.

9. This is a man who knows how to NOOP. What is he doing now?
   Now he _____.

10. This is a FIP. Now there is another one. There are two of them.
    There are two _____.

11. This is an umbrella that belongs to the FIP. Whose umbrella is it?
    It is the _____.

12. This is a man who knows how to TIG. He does this all the time.
    All the time, he _____.

13. This is a man who knows how to RIS. What is he doing now?
    Now he _____.

14. This is a GAN. Now there is another one. There are two of them.
    There are two _____.

15. These are the feet that belong to the GAN. Whose feet are these?
    These are the _____.

16. This is a man who knows how to TECK. He does this all the time.
    All the time, he _____.

17. This is a man who knows how to ZUB. What is he doing now?
    Now he _____.

18. This is a VEE. Now there is another one. There are two of them.
    There are two _____.

19. This is a pencil that belongs to the VEE. Whose pencil is it?
    It is the _____.

20. This is a man who knows how to BIF. He does this all the time.
    All the time, he _____.

APPENDIX E

Task: Nonstandard English Presentation*

EXAMPLES

DO NOT FORGET to have the child repeat (pronounce) each nonsense word after you give it to him as part of the first sentence of each question.

1. This a man who know how to PID. What he doing now?
   He_____.

2. This a LUN. Now there another one. There two of them.
   There two_____.

3. This a cup that belong to the LUN. Whose cup is it?
   It is the_____.

4. This a man who know how to MORK. He do that all the time.
   All the time, he_____.

Comments:

TASK

1. This a man who know how to GUL. What he doing now?
   He_____.

2. This a ZUB. Now there another one. There two of them.
   There two_____.

3. This a hat that belong to the ZUB. Whose hat is it?
   It is the_____.

4. This a man who know how to TULL. He do that all the time.
   All the time, he_____.

5. This a man who know how to MOT. What he doing now?
   He_____ _____.

6. This a GINT. Now there another one. There two of them.
   There two_____.

7. This a ball that belong to the GINT. Whose ball is it?
   It is the_____.

8. This a man who know how to ZAR. He do that all the time.
   All the time, he_____.

9. This a man who know how to NOOP. What he doing now?
   He_____.

10. This a FIP. Now there another one. There two of them.
    There two_____.

11. This an umbrella that belong to the FIP. Whose umbrella is it?
    It is the_____.

12. This a man who know how to TIG. He do that all the time.
    All the time, he_____.

13. This a man who know how to BIK. What he doing now?
    He_____.

14. This a GAN. Now there another one. There two of them.
    There two_____.

15. These the feet that belongs to the GAN. Whose feets are these?
    These are the_____.

16. This a man who know how to TECK. He do that all the time.
    All the time, he_____.

17. This a man who know how to HEG. What he doing now?
    He_____.

18. This a VEE. Now there another one. There two of them.
    There two_____.

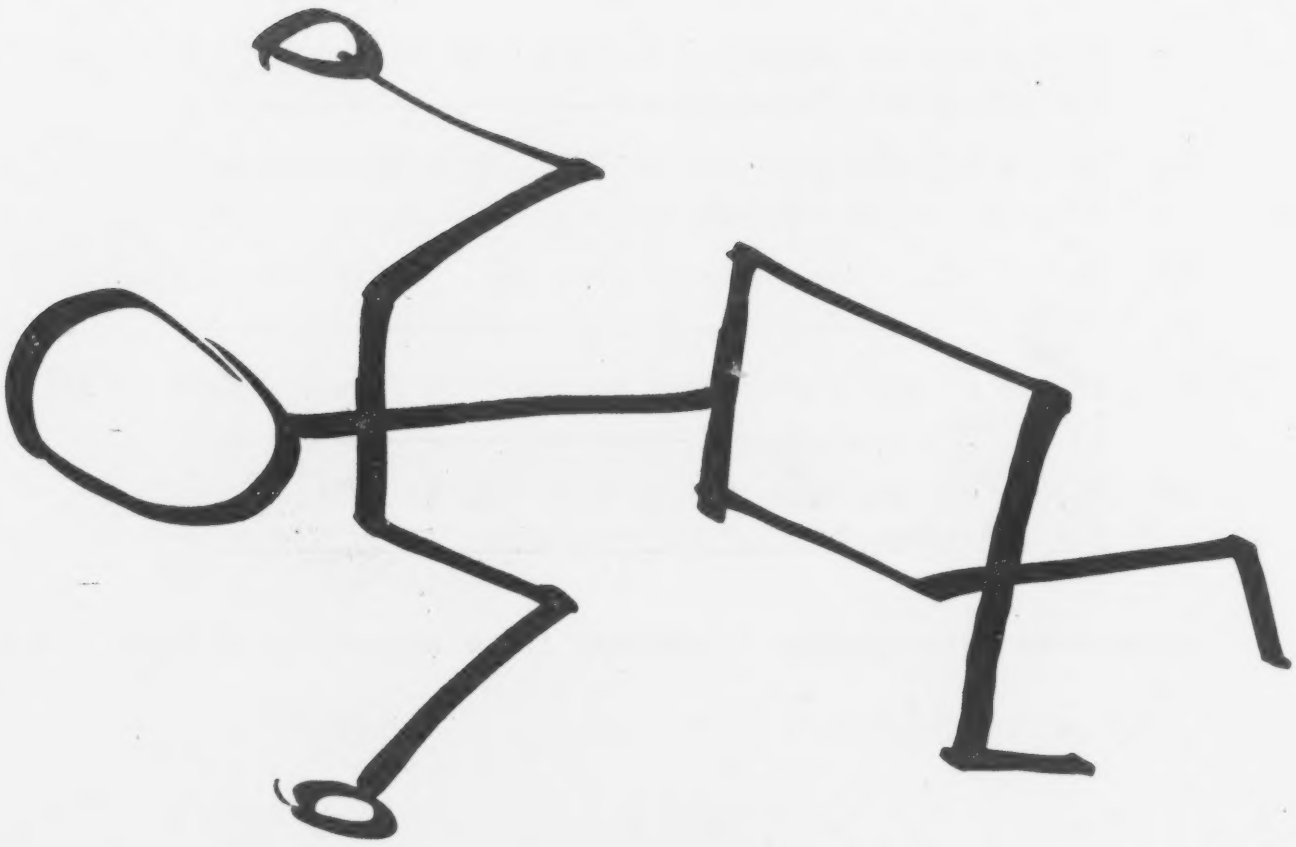
19. This a pencil that belong to the VEE. Whose pencil is it?
    It is the_____.

20. This a man who know how to BIF. He do that all the time.
    All the time, he_____.

*Examiners were trained to present these stimuli in a Negro dialect.

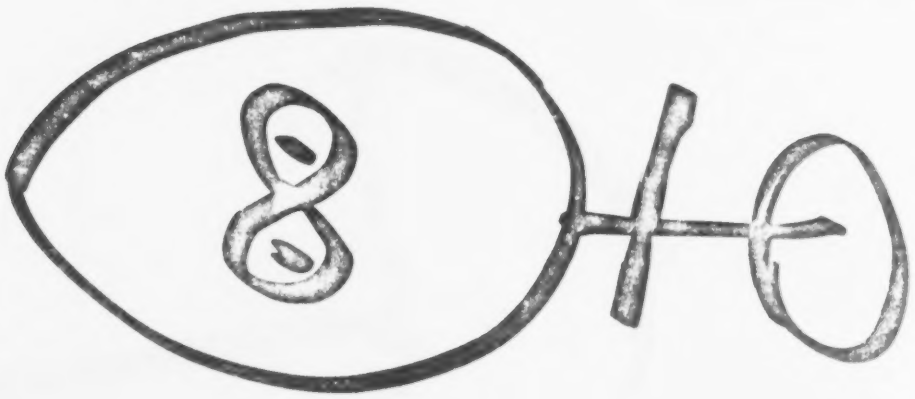
APPENDIX F1

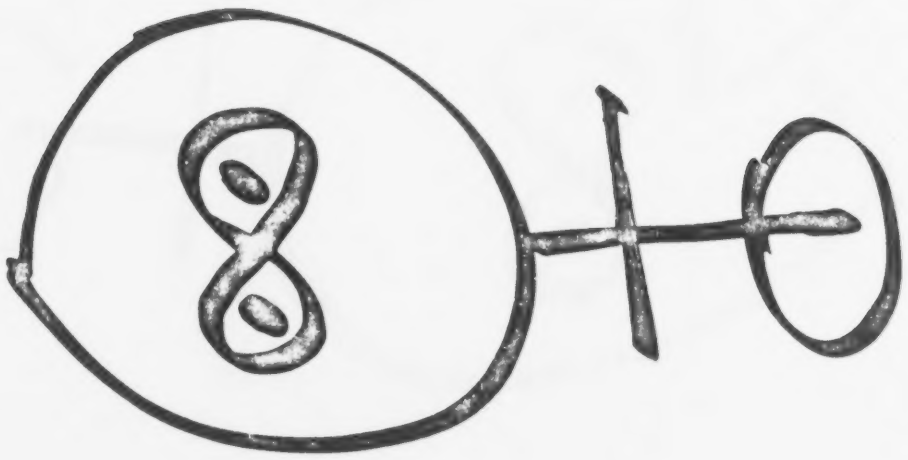
Sample of Stimulus Drawings Accompanying Present Tense
and Time Extension Sentences

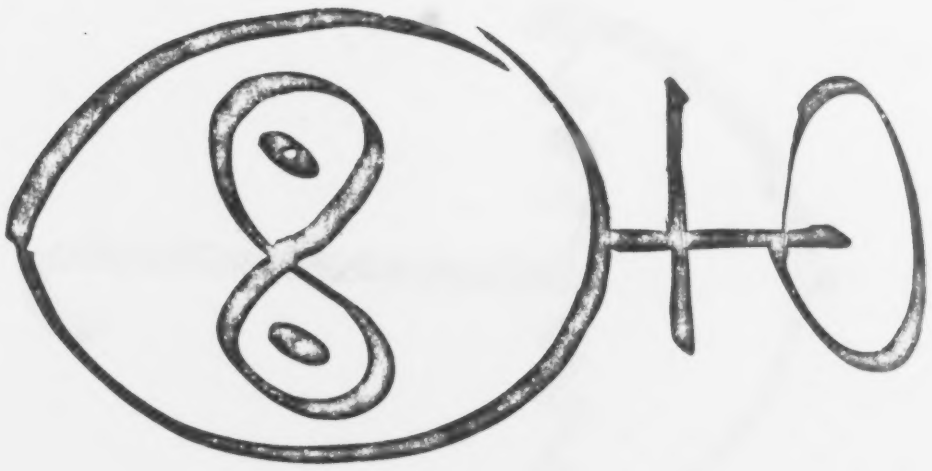


APPENDIX F2

Sample of Stimulus Drawings Accompanying Pluralization Sentences

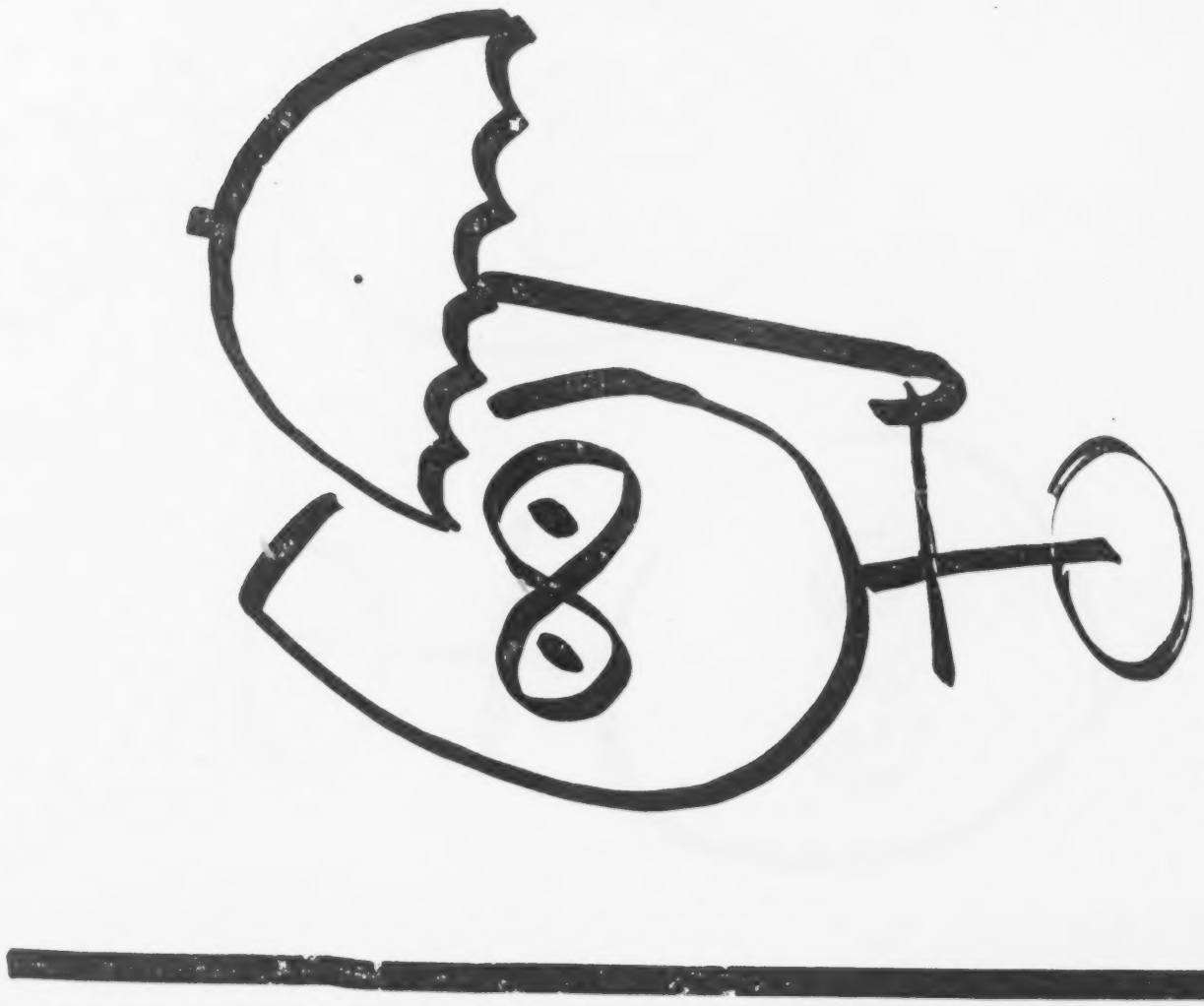


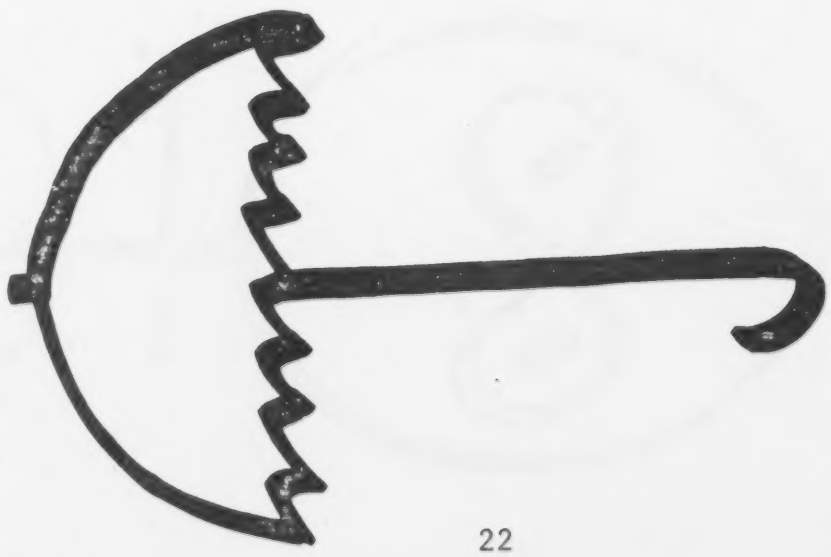




APPENDIX F3

Sample of Stimulus Drawings Accompanying Possessive Sentences





APPENDIX G

Published Material

The information contained in this final report has been condensed and accepted for publication in the Journal of Educational Psychology. The manuscript is entitled "Negro Children's Use of Nonstandard Grammar" and is due to appear in the spring of 1972.

APPENDIX H

Related Research in Progress

Data collection for the following two studies, both supported in part by funds from this grant, has been completed. Both are now in the process of data analysis and will eventually be place in written form for publication in professional journals.

GRAMMATICAL RESPONSES OF SECOND GRADE CHILDREN AS A FUNCTION OF STANDARD ENGLISH AND NONSTANDARD PRESENTATIONS (tentative title):

This study, conducted in the spring of 1971, is similar in procedure and materials to that described in the Final Report. Two Negro and two white male examiners tested a large number of Negro and white second grade subjects. Half of the subjects received the stimulus materials in the same standard English form (Appendix D) as the initial research. The other half were presented the stimuli in its nonstandard English form (Appendix E). The structure of the nonstandard English stimuli were determined by the results of the earlier research which comprises the body of the Final Report. Results will help determine the differential effects of Negro and white dialects upon the linguistic responses of Negro and white children. It is hypothesized that the language systems of these children are so well internalized by the primary grades that differential presentations will be inconsequential.

ASSOCIATIVE HIERARCHIES OF NEGRO AND WHITE CHILDREN IN RESPONSE TO NONSENSE STIMULI (tentative title):

This study, conducted in the spring of 1971, had Negro and white second grade children give Negro and white male examiners their free associations to a series of nonsense syllables. Pilot data, collected in the spring of 1970, suggest that no racial differences exist at this basic linguistic level. If the extended research confirms this, it will indicate that linguistic differences between Negro and white children exist on the level of grammatical transformation but not at the level of basic vocabulary.

APPENDIX I

Research in Preparation

NEGRO CHILDREN'S USE OF NONSTANDARD GRAMMAR: TWO YEARS LATER (tentative title)

A research project is currently designed to retest children from the initial study (Final Report). All children, previously in the second grade, who by spring 1972 have reached fourth grade will be readministered the original standard English presentation of test stimuli (Appendix D) in its original form. This will permit an assessment of the effect of two years' exposure to standard English upon the linguistic system of the nonstandard English-speaking Negro child. The cooperation of the previously used school system has been recruited. The project's origination will depend upon the receipt of adequate funding.